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AND

AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

SEPTEMBER, 1869.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN EUROPE.

IV.—HOLLAND.

THE law on secondary education, enacted 1863, provides for the establishment of schools, as follows :

(a) *Burgher Day and Evening Schools* for the working-classes. These are generally evening schools, parents being inclined to apprentice their children to some trade by which they may earn a trifle, as soon as they leave the primary schools. Previous to 1863, there were schools for drawing, designing, and modelling,—much liked and frequented by the lower classes,—which were subsequently combined with the evening schools.

(b) *Higher Burgher Schools*, for the education of masters, overseers, the commercial classes, and such as are not intended for the army, the navy, or the learned professions ; in short, for the great mass of the population of all ranks.

(c) *Agricultural Schools* ; one government school of this sort being provided for in case its establishment should appear desirable ; and subsidies allowed to private agricultural schools. There is but one school of this sort, at Groningen ; and that is not favorably reported on.

(d) The *Royal Polytechnic School* at Delft, intended for the scientific instruction of those who, in the terms of the law, require “a higher degree of technical and theoretical knowledge than is obtainable at the higher burgher schools, and for the education of civil engineers (from whom the Government civil engineers are selected after competitive examination), architects, naval engineers, ship-builders, mechanics, and engineers for the mines.” This is the only strictly technical school in Holland.

[Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1868, by J. W. Schermerhorn & Co., in the Clerk's Office of the District Court of the United States for the Southern District of New York.]

N. B. The Press are at liberty to copy, provided credit is given to *The American Educational Monthly*.

In regard to the manner of their support, these secondary schools may be classed as follows : (1) Those supported entirely by the towns ; (2) Those supported by the towns with a subsidy from the Government ; (3) Government schools, toward which the towns contribute only the buildings or some part of their cost ; (4) Private schools, existing on their own resources. The latter may be subsidized by the Government on condition that no religious instruction is given in them. The subsidies granted by Government to the public schools amount to about \$2,000 a year to the higher burgher schools with three classes, and about \$3,000 to those which have five classes, with the exception of one which receives somewhat more than \$4,000. Burgher day and evening schools are not subsidized.

The maximum amount of fees for the last-named schools is \$5 a year. For the Government higher burgher schools it is \$25. At the Royal Polytechnic School the fees amount to about \$80. The fees of the other public schools are not subject to any limit by law, but they must be submitted to the Government for approval. They never exceed \$50. Generally they range from \$12.50 to \$25. Books are at the expense of the student. There are no free places, and none of the expenses of the students are defrayed, as in some other States, by private manufacturers. The time spent at the day and evening schools is two years ; at the higher burgher schools, three or five years, according to the number of classes ; at the polytechnic school, four years. Students enter the polytechnic school on leaving the higher burgher schools ; or after passing the final examination with the pupils of these schools, at 18 or 19 years of age. For the other schools no specified qualification is required for admission. Pupils enter at the age of twelve or thirteen.

The subjects of instruction in the public schools, as regulated by law, are as follows :

(a) In the Burgher Day or Evening Schools, the rudiments of the following branches : mathematics ; theoretical and practical mechanics, with some knowledge of machinery ; natural philosophy and chemistry ; natural history ; technology ; agricultural science ; geography ; history ; the Dutch language ; the first principles of political economy ; ordinary and rectilinear drawing ; gymnastics.

It rests with the local authority to determine whether the rudiments of technology or of agriculture, or of both, shall be taught. Instruction in modelling or in some foreign language, French, English, or German, may be added. The same authority determines which of these subjects shall be taught in the evening schools.

(b) In the Higher Burgher Schools (3 classes) : mathematics ; the rudiments of natural philosophy and chemistry ; the rudiments of botany and zoology ; the rudiments of political economy and book-keeping ;

geography ; history ; the Dutch language ; French ; English ; German ; caligraphy ; ordinary and rectilinear drawing ; gymnastics.

(c) In the Higher Burgher Schools (5 classes) : mathematics ; the rudiments of theoretical and practical mechanics, of the knowledge of machinery and technology ; natural philosophy and its principal applications ; chemistry and its principal applications ; the principles of mineralogy, geology, botany, and zoology ; principles of cosmography ; the principles of the municipal, provincial, and central government of the Netherlands ; political economy and statistics, especially of the Netherlands and its colonies ; geography ; history ; Dutch language and literature ; French language and literature ; English language and literature ; German language and literature ; the rudiments of commerce, knowledge of raw and wrought materials and book-keeping ; caligraphy ; ordinary and rectilinear drawing ; gymnastics.

The accompanying programme (page 364) will suffice to show the relative attention given in these schools to the several branches of study pursued.

(d) In the Agricultural Schools : political economy ; practical mathematics (surveying, levelling, mensuration, etc.) ; mechanical science, as applied to agriculture and the use of agricultural machines ; the construction and arrangement of farm-buildings ; rectilinear drawing, as applicable to agricultural science and machinery ; natural philosophy, chemistry, and meteorology, in their application to agriculture ; agricultural technology ; mineralogy and geology, in their application to agriculture ; general and special botany and zoology ; the anatomy and physiology of plants and animals ; the distinguishing characteristics of the different domestic animals, their diseases and medicinal treatment ; general and special agriculture, vegetable and fruit gardening, and the cultivation of timber and fruit trees ; the rearing of stock ; farm book-keeping ; farming in the colonies, etc., etc.

(e) In the Royal Polytechnic School : the higher parts of algebra ; spherical trigonometry and analytical geometry ; descriptive geometry and its applications ; differential and integral calculus ; surveying, levelling, and surface measurements ; theoretical mechanics ; applied mechanics ; machinery ; mechanical technology and agricultural machines ; applications of natural science ; applied, practical, and analytical chemistry ; chemical technology ; modern manufactures ; mineralogy and geology ; applied geology and working of mines ; metallurgy ; hydraulics ; road, railroad, and bridge building ; civil architecture ; ship-building ; rectilinear drawing, in application to the different branches of science ; practical instruction in the use of tools, instruments, and the turning-lathe ; construction of models ; political economy ; commercial law ; laws relating to engineering, public works, mining, and all industrial works.

WEEKLY COURSE OF STUDY AT A HIGHER BURGHER SCHOOL. (Five Classes).

Days.	Hour.	First Class.	Second Class.	Third Class.	Fourth Class.	Fifth Class.
Monday.	9-10 10-11 11-12 1-2 2-3 3-4	Dutch. Mathematics. Geography. German. Natural history. French. Mathematics. German. Dutch. History.	English. German. Mathematics. Dutch. Drawing. Mathematics. Dutch. Mathematics. English. German. Natural history.	Mathematics. Chemistry. German. Dutch. History. Rectilinear drawing. Geography. Mathematics. Physics. History. English. French.	French. Mathematics. Rectilinear drawing. Chemistry. Mechanics. Political economy. Cosmography. Chemistry. History. German. Physics. English.	Mathematics. Dutch. Geography. Political economy. English. Physics. Mechanics. History. Rectilinear drawing. Technology. Chemistry. Political economy.
Tuesday.	9-10 10-11 11-12 1-2 2-3 3-4	History. Mathematics. Natural history. Calligraphy.	Geography. French. Mathematics. History.	Mathematics. German. History. French.	Mineralogy. Mathematics. History. Geography.	Mathematics. History. German. Drawing.
Wednesday.	9-10 10-11 11-12 1-2 2-3 3-4	Dutch. Mathematics. French. History. German. Geography. Mathematics. Rectilinear drawing. History. Geography. Drawing.	Rectilinear drawing. French. English. German. Dutch. Mathematics. English. Dutch. Mathematics. French. History. Natural history.	Chemistry. Rectilinear drawing. Mathematics. Drawing. Dutch. Physics. German. English. French. History. Mathematics.	Mathematics. Geography. Physics. English. Mechanics. Political economy. Physics. Dutch. History. German. Chemistry. French.	Physics. History. Cosmography. Technology. Commercial science. French. Rectilinear drawing. German. Physics. Commercial science. Geography. English.
Thursday.	9-10 10-11 11-12 1-2 2-3 3-4	Dutch. Mathematics. French. History. German. Geography. Mathematics. Rectilinear drawing. History. Geography. Drawing.	Rectilinear drawing. French. English. German. Dutch. Mathematics. English. Dutch. Mathematics. French. History. Natural history.	Chemistry. Rectilinear drawing. Mathematics. Drawing. Dutch. Physics. German. English. French. History. Mathematics.	Mathematics. Geography. Physics. English. Mechanics. Political economy. Physics. Dutch. History. German. Chemistry. French.	Physics. History. Cosmography. Technology. Commercial science. French. Rectilinear drawing. German. Physics. Commercial science. Geography. English.
Friday.	9-10 10-11 11-12 1-2 2-3 3-4	Dutch. Mathematics. French. History. German. Geography. Mathematics. Rectilinear drawing. History. Geography. Drawing.	Rectilinear drawing. French. English. German. Dutch. Mathematics. English. Dutch. Mathematics. French. History. Natural history.	Chemistry. Rectilinear drawing. Mathematics. Drawing. Dutch. Physics. German. English. French. History. Mathematics.	Mathematics. Geography. Physics. English. Mechanics. Political economy. Physics. Dutch. History. German. Chemistry. French.	Physics. History. Cosmography. Technology. Commercial science. French. Rectilinear drawing. German. Physics. Commercial science. Geography. English.
Saturday.	9-10 10-11 11-12 1-2 2-3 3-4	Dutch. Mathematics. French. History. German. Geography. Mathematics. Rectilinear drawing. History. Geography. Drawing.	Rectilinear drawing. French. English. German. Dutch. Mathematics. English. Dutch. Mathematics. French. History. Natural history.	Chemistry. Rectilinear drawing. Mathematics. Drawing. Dutch. Physics. German. English. French. History. Mathematics.	Mathematics. Geography. Physics. English. Mechanics. Political economy. Physics. Dutch. History. German. Chemistry. French.	Physics. History. Cosmography. Technology. Commercial science. French. Rectilinear drawing. German. Physics. Commercial science. Geography. English.

Gymnastics and the rudiments of the manual drill are taught Wednesday and Saturday afternoons.

The law provides that in all schools, whether founded by public bodies or by private persons, the course of instruction may be modified according to circumstances, and either curtailed or extended. The establishment of middle schools for girls by public bodies or by private persons, with or without subsidies, is permitted. But one girls' school is reported, and that is at Haarlem.

Instruction in the burgher schools is given by special masters in the different branches. The lessons are theoretical, except, of course, in drawing, modelling, and moulding, and in experimental chemistry. They are not accompanied by participation in actual manufactory processes or works. On the quarterly payment of certain very moderate fees, "auditors," not considered as regular students, are admitted to any course of lectures they may choose to follow. Teachers at the higher burgher schools are recommended to accompany the students of the higher classes on visits to neighboring manufactories, iron-works, sugar mills, etc.

The diploma granted to students who have passed the final examination at the higher burgher schools (five classes) exempts from first examination at the polytechnic schools; from first examination from East Indian Civil Service, and from some part of the examination as sworn and examined land-surveyor. No other privileges are acquired by frequenting these schools. No special education is required by law for the exercise of any trade or profession except the learned ones.

At the polytechnic school, diplomas are granted in technology, and further as civil engineer, architect, naval engineer, mechanic, engineer, for the mines.

The head-masters of schools are styled Directors. The number of masters at the town schools, and their salaries, are fixed by the Municipal Council, subject to the approval of the Provincial Government. If the schools are subsidied by the province or the government, the approval of the Minister of the Interior is required. The Municipal Council appoints the director and the masters from a list of candidates (in most cases three names for each place) sent in by the Burgomasters and "Wethouders," on recommendation of the Inspector. The directors and masters of Government schools are appointed by the Crown. The qualifications required of candidates are a testimonial as to character and conduct from the municipal authorities, a diploma obtainable on passing examination, and separate diplomas qualifying for instruction in the special branches to be taught. The character of the examination for each of the different certificates or diplomas is minutely prescribed by law; and a Government commission is appointed every year for the examination of candidates. This commission is divided into two boards of examiners, one for the exact sciences, and one for literary branches. No diploma

is granted without a pedagogical examination, except "for private instruction." The examinations are presided over by two inspectors. The members of the commission are selected from among the University Professors, and other learned bodies. The examinations are public. Those who have taken a degree at one of the Dutch universities are qualified for instruction without examination in the branches for which they have taken honors in the university. As but few of the candidates have enjoyed university advantages, the results of the examinations have hitherto been far from satisfactory. Scarcely one-third of the candidates have passed. It is expected, however, that the law on higher education will remedy this evil.

The foundation of all of these semi-technical burgher schools is of too recent date to admit of any conclusion in regard to their effect on the manufacturing and other material interests of the country. Besides, it must be remembered, they are intended for the diffusion of general knowledge without reference to any particular trades or profession, and their influence must be correspondingly slow and general.



OUT OF SCHOOL IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

III.

OF course the toils of learned travel fell with comparative lightness on men of means; but still they had their difficulties. If they took earnestly to study, their chances were that they devoted themselves to that department of all others most obnoxious to their friends—occupying themselves with the *belles-lettres* instead of law, or plunging over head and ears into theology instead of devoting themselves to Avicenna and Galen. Such was the case with Petrarch among others. His father burnt his poetic manuscripts and shifted him from one university to another in the hope of changing his inclination. And the dutiful son made every effort to second these measures, actually learning the whole body of the civil law by rote, in the hope of reconciling himself to its intricacies. But all in vain, for he could not but be a poet. And very similar were the troubles of Boccaccio, whose sire tried first to mould him into a merchant, and then into a lawyer, with just as little effect. Thomas Aquinas, too, suffered much on account of his unconquerable predilection for dry logic and theology. These subjects he adopted greatly to the annoyance of his noble relatives, who did everything they could to restore him to a proper frame of mind. Finding milder measures

unavailing, they confined him for two years in the family stronghold, treating him during that time to many rebukes, a good deal of bread and water, and occasional flagellations, and finally employing a very pretty lady to make love to him. But Thomas—as firm against this queer device as against persecution—got rid of the temptress by the aid of the saints and a firebrand turned into a cudgel, and thenceforth, hopeless of his conversion into a man of the world, his mother connived at his escape by the window, and allowed him to follow his bent. But youths of rank had other and more serious impediments to dread when they engaged in the pursuit of knowledge. Wars frequently obstructed the roads, and bands of robbers always infested them, so that the unfortunate student who had anything to lose often found himself waylaid and tied to a tree, like the celebrated Anselm in the neighborhood of Bec. But he had not always the luck of that worthy in escaping before the wolves or the weather interfered to put an end to his rambles.

The vast proportion of these literary wanderers, however, were the children of the people—cadets of the loom and the plough—lads who begged their way through the Trivium and Quadrivium, climbing often to the highest dignities, and becoming, according to the turn of their genius, renowned lawyers, skilful diplomatists, leading ministers, and even popes. But in the mean time their novitiate wound through hardships and privations in plenty of the kind which Cervantes, who seems to write from experience, enumerates by the mouth of Don Quixote:—"Among the hardships of the scholar we may, in the first place, name poverty. He endures misery in all shapes, in hunger and in cold, sometimes in nakedness, and sometimes in a combination of all. Still, however, he gets something to eat, either from the rich man's leavings, or from the sops of the convent—that last miserable resource of the poor scholar. Nor is he without some neighbor's fireside or chimney-corner to keep him at least from extreme cold. And at night he *generally* sleeps under cover. I will not enlarge upon other inconveniences to which he is exposed, such as scarcity of linen, want of shoes, threadbare coats, and the surfeits he is liable to when good fortune sets a plentiful table in his way." And that Cervantes does not exaggerate, the following sample of poor-scholar life as it was toward the close of the middle ages will sufficiently attest.

Thomas Platter was a native of St. Gall, and a contemporary of Luther, Zwingle, and the Reformers generally. Up to his ninth year he was employed as a goatherd among his native rocks. But his mother, a poor hard-working widow, like so many other mothers of the same period, was possessed with an ardent desire that one of her sons should become a priest; for in those days it was universally held that the angel's salutation, "Blessed art thou among women," applied quite as much to every mother who had a son in orders as to the Virgin herself. Fixing on

Thomas, as most likely to bring her under the influence of the blessing, Dame Platter sent him for instruction to a neighboring curate. Here, however, the boy learnt nothing but a little music, which his master taught him chiefly with an eye to his own benefit,—for the moment young Platter could get through an anthem correctly, his tutor packed him out to sing for eggs before the doors. In no other respect did this model teacher trouble himself concerning his disciple, except to pull him about by the ears or the hair, whichever came first to hand, when he happened to be out of temper. Justly conceiving that this kind of training was not exactly adapted to advance her son toward the priesthood, Dame Platter determined that Thomas should become a poor scholar; and a cousin of his, one Paul Summermatter, a sturdy varlet of nineteen or twenty, who had been for years engaged in the honorable profession, happening just then to pay a flying visit to St. Gall, he was easily induced to take charge of little Thomas, and initiate him into all the mysteries of the craft, receiving a gold florin as fee.

In those days, says Platter, it was customary for youths who desired to learn, and especially to prepare themselves for the priesthood, to wander about, sometimes alone, but more frequently in groups. Being mostly very poor, they made shift to support themselves on the road and at school by begging. The bigger ones were called Bacchants, and the smaller, Sharpshooters. It was the duty of the bacchant to instruct the sharpshooter in the elementary branches; and the latter, in return, was bound to wait upon his senior, accompany him in his wanderings, beg for him, and when mendicity happened to be at a discount, sharpshoot, that is, in plain English, steal without scruple. The bacchant's share of the contract was only too frequently neglected; but woe was certain to befall the sharpshooter who failed in his. Consequently, while the drudges went about half famished, begging and stealing, and thus graduating in all the smaller vices, the bacchants prepared for taking honors in the great ones by leading a jolly life, drinking, gaming, rioting, and robbing too, whithersoever they went. An admirable method, truly, of training the spiritual pastors and masters of Christendom, and sufficiently explanatory of many curious mediæval phenomena.

Platter and his cousin joined a group of poor scholars at Constance, and set out for Breslau. There were nine of them in all, six bacchants and three sharpshooters. Their route lay through Augsburg, Ratisbon, Prague, and thence as nearly as possible along the track adopted by the Crown Prince of Prussia in the recent campaign. The little ones begged through the towns and villages as they passed along, and the big ones usually made themselves comfortable with the result in the alehouses. Platter being small, very simple, and a genuine Switzer—at once a rarity in Eastern Germany, and a curiosity, on account of the martial fame of

his countrymen—made a universally successful fag, gleaning plentifully where most others failed. But this was not much to his own advantage; for his cousin always took possession of his gettings, thrashed him soundly when he ventured to help himself, and kept him incessantly on the “quest.” Besides, whenever he happened to grow weary during his earlier marches, Paul walked behind, and made him skip along by applying a stout switch smartly to his bare legs.

Approaching Silesia, the fags were given to understand by the bacchants that poor scholars were licensed to steal geese, ducks, and provisions generally all through that province. And Platter, at least, devoutly believed, rejoicing greatly thereat, and longing for the hour when he should tread this highly favored soil, and exercise thereon all the rights and privileges in matters thievish that pertained to his order. Accordingly, a fat goose happening to cross his path at the first Silesian village they reached, Master Thomas knocked it down with a pebble, and clapped it coolly under his coat, paying small regard to the owner, who happened to be looking on. Greatly to his astonishment, however, an alarm was raised, and a number of peasants, armed with halberts, came rushing out to reclaim the booty and punish the plunderers. The fags dropped the goose, took to their heels, and managed to escape. When they came to talk the matter over, they unanimously attributed the failure to the fact that Thomas had neglected to bless himself on setting out that morning. They made no further attempt, however, to assert their peculiar rights, at least so openly.

Some marches from Breslau the bacchants quarrelled and separated, probably on account of the gettings of the fags, which, as Platter tells us, diminished to such an extent that they were nearly starved, the people being so obdurate that they had for the most part to lie out in the fields, and so watchful that the cleverest of the group could do little or nothing in the way of “conveyance,” as practised by poor scholars. At Breslau, however, things mended; and, as a result, the fags nearly choked themselves by eating too much,—Master Thomas, in particular, suffering severely from overfeeding.

They found several thousand poor scholars at Breslau, among whom a very characteristic organization had grown up in the course of time. The town was divided into seven parishes, each of which contained its school; and it was the rule that the pupils of one parish should never beg in another. Whoever attempted the trick was sure to be recognized as an interloper, and some such fate befell him as awaits the dog of Constantinople when he strays into a strange district. Cries of “At him, boys! at him!” (“*Ad idem! ad idem!*”) roused the fags of that particular quarter in a twinkling; and unless the intruder happened to be particularly fleet of foot, he was always kicked and cuffed to his heart’s

content before he managed to get home. Sometimes his comrades ran to the rescue, and if, as frequently happened, the bacchants took part in the fray that ensued, it was sure to grow to formidable dimensions. Many bacchants, says Platter, had grown gray at Breslau, having been maintained there by their fags twenty, thirty, and some of them even forty years! As usual, our authority was a very successful beggar; pliant and amiable, he made himself a general favorite with the householders, often bringing home as many as six loads of provisions of an evening. On one occasion a gentleman offered to adopt him, but his cousin would not hear of it, and Platter had been so accustomed to be controlled by this vagabond, that he dared not choose for himself. However, as he remarks, he never left that house empty-handed.

In winter the fags lay upon the floor of the school-room and the bacchants in small chambers, of which there were several hundreds attached to the school. But in summer the juniors gathered grass and slept in the neighboring churchyard. When it rained they ran into school; and when it thundered they sang sacred music all night, for which the people usually rewarded them by an extra dole of alms. As for study, the fags generally did little, Thomas himself none at all, and not the slightest attention was paid to their morals. The elders, indeed, were not so utterly neglected, being instructed by nine professors, who all taught at the same hour and in the same room, much as follows:—The teacher first read the lesson—a passage from some Latin author—and the students wrote it down, pointed it, and then construed it; so that each of them had several large books of notes to carry home with him at the close of the session. Some pious people had endowed a hospital exclusively for the poor scholars, and little Platter was several times an inmate during the short time he passed at Breslau. But so long as he remained therein he preferred to be on the floor rather than on the beds.

In a few months such numbers of poor scholars thronged into the town that even Platter found it difficult to eke out a subsistence; and so his bacchant and himself, in company with six others, migrated to Dresden, suffering greatly from hunger on the way. In the neighborhood of Neumark, happening to encamp by a well a short distance from the wall, their fire attracted the attention of the watch, who discharged a culverin at them, but fortunately hit no one. This, however, did not spoil their supper. They had stolen two geese and plenty of turnips, begged salt and one or two other things, and got a pot somehow. So removing out of sight behind a coppice, they cooked their plunder and had a glorious feast. Then, lying down under the trees, they slept soundly, until roused toward morning by an odd noise. Going to ascertain the cause, they found a stream crossed by a weir and crowded with fish. Setting to work, they took a shirtful in a few minutes, and then resumed their march;

and the day finished even better than it began : for a clown, whose mother had a strong desire to see a Switzer before she died, and who was thoroughly gratified in that respect by a good view of Platter, treated them that evening to beer and food without stint.

At Munich, which was their next goal, Platter scraped acquaintance with a soap-boiler, named Hans Schräll. This man had once been a Master of Arts at Vienna, but had abandoned letters out of pure disgust at the doings of the clerical body. In his company our sharpshooter spent some of his time, travelling about with him to buy ashes, and "making more soap than Latin by a very great deal."

After five years of wandering, Paul Summermatter and Platter returned to St. Gall. Being young, the latter had learnt a little of every dialect then current in Germany, and he took due care to display his accomplishments. "Bless us," said his relatives, "our Tommy speaks so profoundly that we can't make out one half he says." "But for all that," he adds, "I did not yet know how to read."

In a few days the pair set out again : this time for Ulm, taking with them a very little boy, named Hildebrand Klabbermatter. This youth received a piece of cloth for a coat as a parting gift from one of his relatives, and it was expected that they would soon beg money enough to pay for the making. And so they did ; for, says Platter, "through practice I understood the whole art of begging to a nicety. I could sound the good nature of carl and housewife at a glance ; knew when to whine and where to laugh, in what quarter to sing, and with whom to be saucy ; and could instantly discover what was coming—a staff, a groschen, or a parcel of broken meat—from the pursing up of the mouth." But the coat was not very speedily made. That indeed would have been to have killed a goose which laid them a good many nice eggs, and the poor scholars were not so stupid.

As usual, Platter had to surrender all he received, not daring to eat a morsel without leave. But little Hildebrand, being something of a glutton, devoured the food nearly as fast as he got it. The little he brought home exciting the suspicions of the elder ones, they watched him, and caught him in the fact. That night there was a solemn gathering of the bacchantes and sharpshooters belonging to the party. Hildebrand's crime was discussed with due gravity, and sentence pronounced, and executed at once. Throwing the offender on a bed, the bacchantes covered his mouth with a pillow to stifle his cries, and beat him without mercy. From that time forth there was no more gorging in secret among the fags. They preferred, as Platter declares, to drive the dogs in the street from their bones. A moving picture Thomas paints of the miseries he suffered at Ulm—hungry, frost-bitten, singing with woful heart under the windows far on into the night, afraid to return empty-handed, and

not quite sure of escaping punishment, however fortunate ; and he dwells gratefully on the occasional kindnesses which he experienced, especially from a certain pious widow ; how she used to chafe his hands and wrap his benumbed feet in furs, and minister in other ways to his pressing wants.

From Ulm they tramped to Munich. Here, too, the piece of cloth brought them in an ample harvest. But on returning again to Ulm, as they did a year later, and still parading the stuff with the usual cry, people began to suspect them. "What, the coat not made yet !" said one. "Get along, you are playing us tricks," said another. "I believe that coat will be worn out before there is a needle put in it," said a third. And he was not far wrong ; for what with trailing it about in all weathers, and squabbling with rival beggars, by this time the cloth had quite lost its gloss, and got several rents besides. "What became of it in the end, I know not," says Platter ; "but this I do know, it never made its appearance as a coat."

Another flying visit was paid to St. Gall, and then the party set off again to Munich. On their arrival the bacchants, as usual, betook them to a tavern, leaving the fags to shift for themselves ; and the latter, as nobody could be induced to give them shelter, resolved to pass the night on some corn-sacks which they had noticed in the market-place. But on this occasion they found better quarters than they expected. Some women who happened to be employed in the salt-house hard by, took pity on them, gave them their supper, and made them comfortable for the night. One of them, a widow, desired to keep Platter altogether, and he, nothing loth, remained, not showing again among the poor scholars for several weeks. But his bacchant could not afford this, so in great wrath he sought out Master Thomas and soon discovered his retreat. Platter was terribly frightened, but by the advice of the widow pleaded sickness, and so escaped for that time. On returning to school, however, Paul gave him a pretty broad hint of what he might expect if he persisted in taking such liberties, declaring that some day he would trample him under his feet. Thomas knew very well that bacchants were in the habit of keeping promises like this, and then for the first time it occurred to him to run away. He went back, indeed, to the widow for a day or two longer ; but on Sunday, getting up early in the morning and telling her that he wanted to go to school to wash his shirt, he hastened out of the city. But afraid to return to Switzerland, as Paul would be sure to pursue him in that direction, he crossed the Iser, and, placing the hill on the other side of that river between him and the city, sat down and wept bitterly.

In the midst of his tears, and before he had decided what to do, a boor came up with his wagon, and Platter rode on with him for ten or a

dozen miles. Then alighting, he made his way on foot to Seilzburg. The roads were covered with hoar-frost, and the runaway had neither cap nor shoes; his coat, too, nearly worn out and far too small, sheltered him but poorly from the blast. He was accustomed, however, to that kind of thing, and trudged bravely along. Failing to beg a passage down the Danube to Vienna, he thought of returning to Switzerland; but the direct road thither lay through Munich, and that he dared not take. So he went on to Freissing, where there was a school. After passing a short time in this place some of the fags warned him that "the big bacchant from Munich was looking for him, armed with a halbert." In his terror Platter started off directly for Ulm, and took shelter for a season with his pious widow, who received him gladly. But in eight months more his cousin, who by some means had traced him out, followed again in pursuit. Night was falling when Platter heard of Paul's arrival, but he took at once to the road, and made for Constance at the top of his speed. "He lost a good benefice in me," said Platter, speaking of his cousin. "I had supported him well in idleness for a good many years; no wonder, then, that he looked so sharply after me." However, they never met again. What became of Paul is not recorded. He may have sobered down and taken orders like so many more of those wild fellows whom Platter speaks of seeing absorbed into the priesthood without a single qualification for the office. He may have become an average curate, as such reverend gentlemen were in those days; or he may have preferred to play bacchant to the last, picking up fresh drudges, and clinging to them as the Old Man of the Sea clung to Sinbad, rambling from university to university, and realizing on the road such coarse pictures—especially night-pieces—as Fielding and Smollett delighted to paint.

As Platter crossed the bridge at Constance, and saw the Swiss boys in their white jackets, he declares he thought himself in heaven. But not choosing to remain in such a thoroughfare as Constance, he went on to Zurich; where he found some bacchants from St. Gall, and to them he offered his services as fag. One would have thought that he ought to have had enough of sharpshooting by this time; but it must be remembered that if he still wished to become a scholar—and, in spite of all his troubles and small success hitherto, that Platter did most earnestly—he had no other alternative. While at Zurich he received a message from Paul, who, wearying of the chase, had remained at Munich, promising to forgive him if he went back. But to this, of course, Platter paid no attention; and as his new masters proved in no respect better than the old one, he quitted their service, and travelled to Strasburg in company with one Anthony Benetz, a lad of his own age. At Strasburg they found a multitude of poor scholars, but not one good school, so they went on toward Schlestadt. A gentleman upon the way told them that this was

a poor place and overrun with poor scholars, a piece of information which drew tears from Platter's companion. "But," said Platter, "I bade him cheer up—telling him that if there was but *one* poor scholar who could make shift to live at Schlestadt, I would certainly be able to provide for us *two*. It was here that Platter began to study for the first time—being then eighteen—sitting with the little ones "like a great clucking hen among the chickens," as he expresses it. But this did not last long. Such was the influx of poor scholars, that by Whitsuntide he could no longer provide food enough for both, and they took again to the road—on this occasion toward Solothurn, where there was that poor scholar's paradise—a good school and plenty of food to be had for the asking. Here he found that too much time was lost in church for study to be pursued with advantage, and leaving Solothurn he turned his face homeward. "What devil has blown you here?" said his mother when the wanderer returned. "You a priest! No such luck, mine! You waste your time strolling about instead of learning, and I shall never be the joyful mother of a priest!" This was not very encouraging, and so Platter remained at home no longer than he could help. Before he set out again, however, he had learnt to write by the aid of a neighboring priest,—but not, it is to be presumed, the gentleman who had taught him to sing for eggs. Going off to Zurich, he met at last with a teacher to his taste—the celebrated Myconius, and his wanderings as a poor scholar ceased. Myconius drilled him into a thorough Latinist, and by hard and persevering study he made himself a good Grecian and a deep Orientalist. Becoming then a teacher himself, he rose slowly but surely in fame, closing his career at an advanced age, in great honor, at the head of the College of Basil.

All poor scholars, however, did not rely so completely on pure charity as the bacchants appear to have done. Many recommended themselves to hospitality by their social talents. In several quarters the flute or the rebeck as certainly betokened the student as the inkhorn or the book. And those who were not musical made amends for the deficiency by cultivating their powers of narration. Nor were these always mere temporary devices. Very frequently the poor scholar made a profession of them in after-life, and elected to be a minstrel or a raconteur in preference to a priest. Nor was the raconteur's by any means a poor line of business; that is, if he could gratify his audience with the latest novelty, and especially with the newest essay or poem of some current celebrity. These were the men of whom Petrarch writes—"Gifted with memory and industry, but unable to compose themselves, they recite the verses of others at the tables of the great, and receive gifts in return. They are chiefly solicitous to please their hearers by novelty. Often they beset me with entreaties for my unfinished poems, and often I refuse. But sometimes

moved by the poverty or worth of my applicants, I yield to their desires. The loss is small to me, though the gain to them is great. Many have visited me poor and naked, who, having obtained their request, have returned to thank me loaded with presents and dressed in silks." And it was to these men that the great writers of the middle ages owed that wide and rapid diffusion of their renown, which rivals what the press can do for the writers of the present day.

Other poor scholars again preferred to draw a subsistence from the superstition of the period. Sir Matthew Hale's device to pay a bill was a very common one with them. Many a scamp replenished his purse and his wallet by extemporizing gibberish over a field of young corn or a promising litter of pigs; or by posting up nonsense on the door of barn or cow-house; or by penning a text on a piece of parchment to be worn round the neck by way of charm. And this last expedient, by the way, was far from being confined to the poor scholars. It was much in vogue with the monks, who drove a roaring trade in these amulets, to the great destruction of valuable manuscripts, which they made away with thus by piecemeal. The scholar, too, who could draw a horoscope or calculate a nativity, was always sure of good quarters. Such a character makes a prominent figure in many popular mediæval stories;¹—predicting a felon's doom for some unfortunate baby, and living to pronounce it in the character of judge, and to reverse it too—for some accident usually occurs to make the culprit known to him as the subject of his astrological calculations, and therefore, as a fit and proper object for his mercy. Often too, in times of high excitement, these vagabonds ventured boldly into the domain of the wizard. But in these cases, not being thoroughly versed in the vague obscurity and oracular reserve of word and deed affected by the genuine adept, they generally came to grief, as in the following instance, which occurred at Dijon during the madness of Charles VI. : Two scholars, named Poinson and Briquet, announcing that they had discovered the cause of the king's malady, and the means of restoring him to health, established themselves in a thick wood near the gate,—a spot very favorable to their operations. Having levied heavy contributions on the people, who, considering the object, scarcely dared refuse, they caused twelve pillars to be made, as many chains, and a massive circle, all of iron. They next set up the pillars in the wood, fixed the chains, and raised the circle to the top. This took up a good many weeks, but the wizards at least did not object, nor, as they lived in the midst of unusual plenty, had they any just cause. When the preliminaries were at last completed, a day was fixed for the incantation, and the whole city, and the country too, thronged thither to behold. As soon as

¹ As the collection called "The Seven Corse Masters."

the crowd had mustered, the wizards declared that it was now indispensable to pick out twelve men, who were to allow themselves to be chained to the pillars during the ceremony. One of these, indeed, it was admitted, was to be carried off by the demon, but—as the wizards rather cunningly put it—no loyal Frenchman could object to run the risk. A good many faces looked blank enough at this, but before any one could make up his mind to run away, a dozen names belonging to citizens of good repute, and all wedged in among the foremost ranks of the spectators, were read out, with the bailli at their head. And in a very few minutes every one of them, bailli and all, was coaxed into the circle, partly by dint of hearty elbowing, but chiefly because the crowd hinted pretty broadly that they had no alternative. The wizards chained them to the pillars, and then began to gibber and dance,—a game they kept up until everybody was tired, themselves included, but without producing any particular result. Much to the disappointment of the outsiders, nobody was whisked away, nor did even one solitary imp condescend to put in an appearance. At last it became too evident that the whole thing was a farce, and great was the indignation. The mob groaned, hooted, howled, and cast rubbish,—a great deal of which, but of course purely by accident, fell upon the respected person of the bailli, who swore pretty audibly to be amply avenged on the two impostors the very moment he got loose. The twelve good men and true reviled the wizards, and the wizards reviled the twelve good men and true, declaring that the latter had wilfully and of malice aforethought spoilt the incantation by secretly making the sign of the cross within the circle. Of course the wizards were arrested—one of them after a very smart chase—and led at once to the stake. But scarcely had the flames that consumed them expired, when a most destructive tempest burst over the district—it was then harvest-time—and this was universally attributed to the malicious spirits of the executed sorcerers.

The glimpses which history affords of mediæval manners—of the doings and the influence of such representative men as John Ball, Wolsey, Bishop Acunha, and Cardinal Fregosi, form an all-sufficient comment upon this kind of clerical training. Seeing them at their studies, we are not astonished to find clergymen figuring as they do in the tales of Boccaccio and the extravagances of Rabelais. In countless instances the pastors were, as these writers represent them, the agents of demoralization; men who seemed to know but one text, "The heart is deceitful above all things, and desperately wicked," and who only sought to illustrate it. As for the chaplains, they displayed much more of the pander and buffoon than of the herald of grace. And they recommended themselves to the favor of their patrons rather by the contrivance of amusement than the construction of homilies. Take the Abbé Delebaigne as an example.

This reverend gentleman, as Bouchet tells us, prepared a peculiar musical instrument for the delectation of Louis XI. He had a hamper made with a number of narrow compartments, thrust a live pig into each, and placed a cylinder, stuck with points and turned by a handle, across. He then covered the internal arrangements carefully from view, and had the machine carried into the royal presence. Pulling a very solemn face, he turned the handle, and the porkers squeaked like a hundred-and-fifty pairs of bagpipes, to the intense delight of the monarch—who then and there rewarded the deviser of this, the first hurdy-gurdy on record, with half-a-dozen fat livings.

IS BEING DONE.

THIS form of speech, more than any other that we know, has been opposed by word critics and grammarians generally. Some have spoken of it simply as uncouth English, or a new-fangled phrase; while others have called it by harder names,—“a clumsy solecism,” “an incongruous and ridiculous form of speech,” “an awkward neologism, which neither convenience, intelligibility, nor syntactical congruity demands.” These writers, however, have not satisfied themselves with the use of single expressions. Many have been the pages that have been penned from time to time, to show that the form has no legitimate claim to adoption, or to ridicule it, if possible, out of the place it has gained in the language. But the stupidest is that which some time since appeared in one of our literary monthlies. Instead of candor and intelligent argument, calculated to command the respect and compel the assent of thinking people, it presents us with a pitiful display of prejudice and ignorance, attempting to carry the day by means of ridicule and disgusting puerilities.

Most writers speak of the participle in *-ing*, in such sentences as “The house is building,” “The garments are making,” “Wheat is selling,” as used “in a passive sense.” But this is wrong. It is simply an *intransitive* use of an ordinarily transitive participial. “The house is *building*” is grammatically equivalent to “The house is *going up*,” or “The house is *increasing*.” Of course, the act of building is not something done by the house of itself, any more than is its going up or its increasing. And yet the sentence “The house is building” predicates action of the house as truly as does the sentence “The house is going up.” No one ever thinks of considering *going* here as used “in a passive sense.” It is simply intransitive. So is *building*. So, too, are the participles in the following sentences, however frequently they may be otherwise used in other connec-

tions: "The dinner is *cooking*," "A storm is *brewing*," "The third volume is now *printing*." For, though we can say "The dinner is cooking *under* the mistress's own direction," "A storm is brewing *in* the west," "The third volume is now publishing *at* the Harpers," we cannot say "The dinner is cooking *by* the mistress herself," "A storm is brewing *by* the elements," "The third volume is publishing *by* the Harpers." The reason is that the form is neither passive nor used in a passive sense.

To illustrate the case still further, take the word *widening*. Using it transitively, we may say "The men are widening the stream." Using it intransitively, we may say "The stream is widening." But this, though really an employment of the participle in what the grammars call "its passive sense," happens to represent the stream as itself doing something. If we want to speak of the widening as done by other agents, and still use the word *stream* as the subject, we must resort to some other form of speech. Yet we cannot say "The stream is widened." This would imply that the work of widening is no longer going on. We must say "The stream is in process of being widened," or something similar.

But we should like just here to inquire for a moment why we can say "The house is building," and yet, in attempting to convey the same form of thought, cannot say "The stream is widening." The reason we conceive to be twofold. In the first place, in a sentence like the former the thing spoken of is incapable, of itself, of doing literally the deed attributed to it. Thus, while wheat is capable of growing, and we can say literally "Wheat grows," we cannot say "Wheat sells," in the sense in which we use *sells* when we say "The farmer sells wheat." But, by a sort of figure, we are allowed to say "Wheat sells well," or "Wheat is selling." We say "by a sort of figure," for an act is attributed to the thing spoken of,—wheat, in this instance,—which literally that thing is incapable of performing. Hence, a figurative sense, if any at all, is of necessity given to the verb or participle. So in all such cases, as "The house is erecting," "The book is printing," "A storm is brewing," "The bread is baking," "The tea is drawing," etc., etc. Change these subjects to the names of agents capable of performing the literal act specified, and we change the meaning,—we *may* make nonsense—unless we supply an object. Try it: "James is erecting," "William is printing," "John is brewing," "Sarah is baking," "Mary is drawing," etc.

In the second place, it will be observed that, in order to convey this seemingly "passive sense," these words are and must be invariably used *intransitively*. If a verb like *erect*, or *make*, which is usually transitive, can be employed in accordance with the form "The house is building," it cannot be as a transitive verb. If it cannot be used intransitively without ambiguity or nonsense, the form cannot be legitimately employed. Hence, we can hardly say "The horse is whipping," meaning that the

horse is receiving a whipping, or "The door is unbarring," to indicate that some one is unbarring the door, or "The book is studying," as an equivalent for "Some one is studying the book."

Under these circumstances, along with the desire of embodying these and similar ideas in words without introducing the name of the agent of the act as transitively expressed, the query naturally enough arises, What form of words shall we use? Shall we always have recourse to a circumlocution more or less tedious, or can we not tersely and correctly express the idea intended in some other way? We say "The men are widening the street." We wish to express the same passively. But we cannot say "The street is widening by the men." This makes nonsense. Nor can we convey our meaning by saying "The street is widened;" for that expresses a discontinued action. Why can we not say "The street is being widened?" *Being widened* is simply the passive for *widening*. Why is not *is being widened* the legitimate passive for *is widening*? Compare

Active. The boys *are mending* the nets.

Passive. The nets *are being mended* by the boys.

Active. I *was teaching* you to write.

Passive. You *were being taught* to write by me.

To this it is objected—

1. That the form is new. Granted. Was there never a time when other forms were new? If the objection has any force, we must abandon the idea of ever having any more words or forms of speech in the language.

2. That it is unnecessary. In the strict sense of the word, this may be true; that is to say, we can get along without it. So we might dispense with a thousand other forms the use of which is a great convenience. The very fact that the form is and has been used extensively and by good writers, is of itself presumptive evidence that, if not strictly necessary, it is certainly called for as a convenience.

3. That it is awkward. For aught we can see to the contrary, this charge is just as true against "Is becoming straightened," "Is growing accustomed to it," "Has been in course of relinquishment," and a number of other expressions, as it is against "Is being done." If the latter cannot be used on the score of clumsiness, a thousand other forms in good repute should be abandoned also.

4. That consistency would require our using "*has been being built*," "*had been being built*," etc.;—on the principle, we presume, that if it is right and proper to say "I *do* love" and "I *did* love," consistency requires that we also say "I *have done* love," "I *had done* love," etc.; or, if it is proper to say "The house *is* to be sold," and "The house *was* to be sold," consistency demands that we should also say "It *has been* to be sold," "It *had been* to be sold," etc.!

5. That the verb *to be* cannot be a complement to itself, on the ground that it is equivalent to *to exist* and always predicates existence. To this we have just four things to say.

a. The verb *to be* does not always predicate existence. It denotes being, of course, and therefore implies existence just as thousands of other verbs do. If I can strike, the very fact of my possessing the ability to strike implies that I exist. Just so, if I am striking, the bare fact of my putting forth the act implies that I am. But, in the sentence, "I am striking," *am* no more predicates existence than does *can*, in the sentence "I can strike." The former sentence predicates the present putting forth of the act of striking; nothing more: the latter, a present ability to put forth such an act. That the verb *to be*, as an auxiliary, is not a synonym of the verb *to exist*, requires no labored argument to prove. If these verbs were "perfect synonyms," as it is said they are, then the sentence "I am not living, I am only existing," would be palpably and ridiculously contradictory and tautological; for the sentence might as well read "I *exist* not living, I *exist* only existing," or "I *do* not *exist* living, I *exist* only existing," which again may, of course, be converted into "I *do* not *be* living; I am only existing." According to the same doctrine, the sentence, "The old type of British knighthood *was* felt to exist in full force in him," is equivalent to "The old type of British knighthood *existed* felt to exist," etc. "Whately *was* to be the new archbishop," is equivalent to "Whately *existed* to exist the new archbishop;" and "He *was* to have been here before," to "He *existed* to have existed here before!" Synonyms, indeed! *Credat Judæus Apella!*

b. Again, the statement that the verb *to be* cannot be a complement to itself is an untruth "so palpable, so monstrous, so ridiculous, that it needs only to be pointed out to be scouted." Take the sentence "He was to have been here before." What is *to have been* but a complement to *was*? *Was* may not be in the grammarian's view "an auxiliary." But it certainly is nothing else,—as truly an auxiliary as *should* is, in the sentence "He should have been here before." And to one whose knowledge of English grammar is not merely something derived from Ben Jonson and Murray or from the study of Latin Grammars, *to have been* is as truly a complement of *was* as it is of *should*, and might be of *ought*, or of many another verb. Compare also, "That which *is* to be hath already been,"—*is* to *be* being equivalent to *may be* or *will be*.

c. A proper analysis of the form *is being made* will show that *being* is not a complement of *is*, nor is *is* an auxiliary of *being*. The root or basis of the expression, evidently, is the word *made*. It embodies the main thought, and on it the stress comes in utterance. But, auxiliary to this basis, with a view to express a continuance of the act denoted by it, is the word *being*. Then, auxiliary to *made*, thus compounded with and modi-

fied in meaning by *being*, comes *is*, containing the wording or asserting element. *Is*, therefore, is really complemented, not by *being*, but by *made* under a modified form. To illustrate this yet further, take the combination *is made*. Insert some word or phrase between its component parts, as follows,—“*is not made*,” “*is really made*,” “*is to be made*,” “*is on the point of being made*,” etc. In each of these, the auxiliary *is* is complemented by *made*, modified in meaning by some word or phrase. Now what we hold, and what we believe must be clear to every one, is that, in the form *is being made*, *is* sustains precisely the same relation to what follows it as in the foregoing and in all similar cases, and that the complement of *is* is not *being*, any more than *not* or *really* or *to be* or *on the point of being*, but the modified passive participle that follows, whether modified by *being*, or any other allowable word or expression.

d. This objection comes with very ill grace from those who hold that *is making* is but an abridgment of *is a-making*. For, if this is true, *is being made* must be an elliptical form for *is a-being made*. And, if this is the case, *being made*, like *making*, is not the complement of *is*, but the object of the obsolescent preposition *a*. The objection, therefore, that the verb *to be* is here an auxiliary to itself, and consequently improper, must be abandoned; or else the idea that *is making* is only an abbreviation of *is a-making* must be given up. We leave it to those whom it concerns, to say which horn of the dilemma they will take, or whether they will take either.

6. That it is an incongruous form of speech, not conveying the idea intended. It is designed to express continued passivity, sometimes present, sometimes past. To the minds of multitudes, even though they may never use the expression, it certainly does convey this idea. If the sentence “The street is being widened” represented, as the objection virtually says it does represent, the action as going on and at the same time completed, it might with justice be objected to. But such is not the case. If we say, “The street is wide,” we assert respecting the street a state involving no idea whatever of action. Hence, such a phrasing as “The street *is being* wide” for “The street *is* wide” would be an incongruous, unmeaning tautology. Now when we say “The street is widened,” the words in like manner assert the present condition of the street. But it is a condition involving the idea of action,—not necessarily, however, of “completed” action, but properly of *suspended* action. The insertion of *being* into the predicate—“The street is being widened”—removes the suspension. It represents the action as being or existing,—as no longer suspended, and consequently as continuing. And this is all that is claimed for it. The expression properly employed, therefore, legitimately conveys no other idea than that of continued subjection to an action, the character of which is denoted by the passive participle.

We say "the expression properly employed;" for we admit that it is not every transitive verb that can be legitimately employed under the form *is being done*. Many passive participles—and "passive" is what we mean, though some prefer to designate the simple participial form in *-ed*, like *loved*, as past—many passive participles convey the idea of continued action. Such participles cannot be separated from *is* or *are* by the insertion of *being*. "Nobody," says Bullions, "would think of saying 'He is being loved.'" This is very true. *To love* is one of those verbs which, in the present, whether active or passive, denote a continuance of the act. Hence, no one who knows how to speak English ever thinks of saying "He is being loved" any more than "He is loving,"—though Brown and others seem to regard the latter as a good English transitive-verb form, and insert it in their grammars.

The following afford examples of other verbs of the same class: "His style has been, *is*, and will be abundantly *imitated*."—*H. Martineau*. "The generality of the world *are fettered* by rules."—*Steele*. "Busy multitudes *are employed* within doors in the drawing up of writings and conveyances."—*Addison*. Not merely is the introduction of *being* before these participials unnecessary; it would be positively wrong, burdening the expression with redundancy, as much so as would the insertion of *being* before *wide* in the sentence "The stream is wide." But take a transitive verb like *widen*, or *strike*, which does not convey the idea of continued action, and which therefore admits of the form *is widening*—"The men *are widening* the street"—in order to express this idea, but which does not allow of the intransitive use of that form, and we shall find that the case is materially changed. We quoted just now the words of Addison, "Multitudes are employed," etc. Compare with these the sentence "The stream is widened." The difference is obvious, so far as the form of the thoughts is concerned. The former conveys the idea of an existing, continuing act; the latter, of an act not in continuance. To express its continuance, it is necessary to insert the word *being*,—"The stream is being widened." It will be observed, therefore, that in all cases in which the ordinary "passive" form, so called, expresses a continuance of the act, *being* should not be employed; but when the usual passive form does not express progression, *being* should be employed. The following presents a violation of this principle; "Strong efforts *are made* to procure his discharge." If the passive form must be used here instead of *are making*, it should be *are being made*. *Are made* does not truly express the idea of a continuance of effort. If that idea is obtained, it is rather by inference than otherwise. The words undoubtedly imply action belonging to what is called present time. But that present is not a "progressive present;" it is rather "the repetitive present," denoting what occurs or is done from time to time. Compare the two sentences, "Efforts

are making to secure his pardon," "Efforts are made on his behalf." The former asserts the present *continuance of the act* (of making); the latter, a *succession of acts* (efforts), occurring at intervals not yet completed, and so belonging to present time and requiring a verb in the present tense.

We wish now to give a few cases in which we think the use of the form *is being made* is justifiable. Marcel, on Language, vol. ii., p. 67, speaks of "the rapid and careless manner in which words are usually repeated when *being committed* to memory." This is but an elliptical form for "When they *are being committed* to memory." It is obvious, he could not have said either "when *committing*," or "when *committed* to memory," without conveying either nonsense or a false meaning. A similar statement may be made concerning the participial in each of the following examples. "It was being uttered."—*Coleridge*. "The foundation was being laid."—*Brit. Critic*. We wish our readers to judge for themselves whether Goold Brown and his followers are really correct when they say that, instead of these, "it would be *much better* to say 'It [i. e. the sentence] was uttering,' 'It was uttered,' or 'It was in uttering,' ['It was a-uttering' perhaps!]' and 'The foundation was laying' [suggestive of a hen's laying] 'The foundation was laid,' or 'The foundation *was* about being laid.'"—*Brown's Gr. of Gram.*, p. 384. Do these forms really express the idea intended? Not one of them; not even the last, the idea being there misrepresented by the insertion of the word *about*. How, then, can they be preferable to those they are proposed to be used for? We add two or three more: "Some were being slain, others captured."—*Watson's Sallust*. "The good are being gathered into life."—*Mrs. Stowe; Pref. to Sun. Mem.* "The birth-place of peoples and tongues and faiths is being forced to render up her embosomed mysteries; the sphynx riddle is being read; the buried treasures of barbaric art are being brought forth to the light of day, and are being caused to read a story that extends away down to the bosom of the antique by-gone."—*Pul. Monthly*, Nov. 1854. In all these examples, unless possibly in that from Mrs. Stowe, if we wish to preserve the idea that the things are *in the act* of being done, neither the intransitive form in *-ing*, nor yet the simple passive participle will do to be substituted for the compound form.

Thus, we see that there are certain cases in which the true participial form to be employed is that in *-ing*, used intransitively; certain others, in which the passive participle should be employed; and yet others, in which the compound participle *being done* is preferable, for the reason that neither of the foregoing forms can be employed, without the adoption of a different verb (as, "The deed is *attended* with [instead of 'is *being followed* by'] unexpected consequences"); while, on the other hand, the *is-being-made* form is briefer than any other and quite as expressive.

TEACHING HISTORY.

THE successful teaching of history is acknowledged to be one of the most difficult duties of an instructor: so difficult indeed, that many give it a subordinate place, and Normal Schools rarely attempt to fit their pupils for this department. Any child can be taught certain facts and dates, by a due amount of perseverance and drill. But it is quite another thing to give a scholar a distinct, collective impression of any course of events. Mnemonics may help the memory to retain dates, but dates are only the pegs upon which History, like wrought tapestry, is hung—the machinery that rolls the panorama before the eye. It would seem that this study is natural to most minds. The youngest child listens eagerly to a well-told story, and likes it the more when it is true. What is History but a continuous true story? Why should it not be taught on this principle?

Take, for example, United States History. First give a few general topics, as, What is History? Its value? Its periods? and others of like character, so that the pupil receives a clear conception of what he is about to acquire. Begin then, say, with the discovery of America by Columbus. Do not be satisfied with ascertaining by questions that he knows from what port Columbus sailed, and on what day he touched Guanahani's Island. Require each member of the class to begin at the beginning, and tell the story through in his *own* language. Columbus's applications at the courts of Europe, his defeats and successes, his starting, his voyage, his picturesque landing, must all be as distinctly and connectedly related as though no other events had ever occurred. Not even Columbus's early life belongs to the subject, but should be given as another topic, the whole to be related as any man's life would be told; his voyages to America being some of its incidents. It may require several recitations to bring the class to the desired standard, but having accomplished one subject in this way, others will not be so difficult. Write the topics to be given to the class according to the subject, not in connection of time. It will assist the pupil, where the topic is long, to write an account, leaving out all episodes. But, you will say, the mind will thus have its pictures, but they fail of any connection. But hear us through. Having gone in this way over the first period, review in the order of time. The separate images will fall into their places, the tapestry before wrought will be hung on its hooks. The whole book being completed in this way, there yet remains the fixing of these impressions. The subject naturally divides itself into five parts. (1) The settlements of the States. (2) The colonial wars. (3) The Revolution. (4) The Administrations. (5) The late war. Each pupil is required to make a list of the dates of

settlements—by whom and where; the colonial wars—between whom and when; the battles of the Revolution, with dates; the principal events of each Administration, and the dates of the battles of the late war;—all to be committed to memory. Scholars that have studied history for two or three years by other methods and remembered little or nothing about it, assure us that they will never be able to forget what they have learned by this plan. All the varied information of the teacher is thus brought out to enliven and fix the subject. It would seem, also, that the subtle tracing of effects from causes, that belongs to the true historical mind, can thus be most easily pursued.

Our teacher's way

A LESSON IN TEACHING.

IN a letter to the *Ledger* explaining his persistence in declining honorary degrees (Henry Ward Beecher gives the following account of how he was taught to conquer in studying, and to stick to what he had learned. The teacher was William P. N. Fitzgerald; the school Mount Pleasant Classical Institute, Amherst, Mass.)

"I first went to the blackboard, uncertain, soft, full of whimpering. 'That lesson must be learned,' he said, in a very quiet tone, but with a terrible intensity, and with the certainty of Fate. All explanations and excuses he trod under foot with utter scornfulness. 'I want that problem. I don't want any reasons why I don't get it.' 'I did study it two hours.' 'That's nothing to me—I want the lesson. You need not study it at all, or you may study it ten hours—just to suit yourself. I want the lesson. Underwood, go to the blackboard!' 'Oh, yes, but Underwood got somebody to show him his lesson.' 'What do I care how you get it? That's your business. But you must have it.'

"In the midst of a lesson, his cold and calm voice would fall upon me in the midst of a demonstration—"No!" I hesitated, stopped, and then went back to the beginning; and, on reaching the same spot again—"No!" uttered with the tone of perfect conviction, barred my progress. 'The next!' and I sat down in red confusion. He, too, was stopped with 'No!' but went right on, finished, and as he sat down, was rewarded with 'Very well.' 'Why,' whimpered I, 'I recited it just as he did, and you said No!' 'Why didn't you say Yes! and stick to it? It is not enough to know your lesson. You must know that you know it! You have learned nothing till you are sure. If all the world says No, your business is to say Yes, and prove it!'"

EASY EXPERIMENTS IN ELEMENTARY CHEMISTRY.

SECTION IX.—Sulphur and its Compounds.

SULPHUR, or Brimstone, is obtained at the shops in three different forms: in irregular lumps, just as it is delivered in bulk by the cargo; in cylindrical sticks or bars, known as "roll-sulphur;" and in a soft powder called "flowers of sulphur." Either form is suitable for exhibition of the properties of this element.

Sulphur is insoluble in water (consequently tasteless), inodorous at ordinary temperatures, and readily fusible.

Exp. 92. Put some sulphur in a test-tube and apply the flame of a spirit-lamp. It melts at a temperature a little above that of boiling water, becoming a thin liquid easily poured, and of course readily convertible into the form of *roll-sulphur*, by pouring into cylindrical moulds.

Exp. 93. Put a small bit of sulphur in a test-tube and apply heat as before, but continue it until the whole has been *sublimed*. It will be found in the form of "flowers of sulphur," adhering to the upper part of the tube.

Exp. 94. Fill an old cup or crucible half full of sulphur, and apply a gentle heat until it is entirely melted. Set it aside until by cooling a tolerably firm crust has formed over the surface. Break a hole in this and pour off all that will run out. If the cup be broken so as to expose the mass of sulphur in the bottom, a quantity of crystals will be exhibited.

This experiment may with care be shown on a small scale by using the bowl of a common clay pipe instead of a cup. The stem of the pipe serves as a handle.

Exp. 95. Fill a large-sized test-tube nearly full of sulphur, and apply a strong heat. The sulphur melts as before, but upon continuing the heat it becomes dark-colored and thick, and at a still higher temperature (500° F.) it is again a thin, dark-colored liquid. Pour the contents now into a glass of water, and the sulphur immediately takes the form of an elastic gum, which may be easily moulded by the fingers. It is often used in this condition for taking impressions of medals. It resumes its ordinary brittle condition in the course of a few hours.

Exp. 96. To a test-tube half full of a strong solution of potash add as much flowers of sulphur as can be taken upon a penknife blade, and boil for ten or fifteen minutes. The liquid assumes a brownish tint as it dissolves a portion of the sulphur. After boiling, let it stand for a few minutes to settle and cool; then pour off the clear liquid; add about as much water, and finally add vinegar or dilute sulphuric acid. The dissolved sulphur is precipitated, causing the liquid to assume a milky ap-

pearance. When this is filtered, washed, and dried, it is called "milk of sulphur." It is of a very pale yellow color, and is simply sulphur in its finest state of subdivision.

There are several compounds of sulphur and oxygen, all of which are acids. Only two of them, sulphurous and sulphuric acids, are of sufficient importance to receive attention in an elementary course of chemistry.

The former is produced whenever sulphur is burned in oxygen (Exp. 38) or in the open air. Its power of bleaching is easily shown.

Exp. 97. Put a piece of sulphur as large as a small marble on a bit of slate and set fire to it. A cylinder of pasteboard four or five inches in diameter and a foot high will form a convenient chimney to set over the burning sulphur to direct the acid fumes upward. The cylinder should admit a little air at the bottom. If a colored rose, moistened or wet with water, be held at the top of the chimney it will be rapidly bleached.

The color may be restored by washing the rose in water to which a little sulphuric acid has been added.

Exp. 98. Sulphurous acid gas is evolved rapidly by boiling one part of copper chips or filings with four parts of sulphuric acid. If conducted by a tube into water, it is rapidly absorbed, and the solution acquires the properties of the gas.

Exp. 99. Pour a little of the sulphurous acid solution into an infusion of logwood or red cabbage. It is promptly bleached. The color may be restored by a few drops of sulphuric acid. Sulphuric acid or oil of vitriol is employed more extensively than any other acid by chemists and manufacturers. It is made on a large scale in many places.

The process consists in first making sulphurous acid by burning sulphur, and then conducting the fumes into an enclosed room lined with lead, where the gas is mixed with nitric or hyponitric acid gas, steam, and air. The former of these gives up oxygen to the sulphurous acid, converting it into sulphuric, and then recovers the amount thus lost from the air. A little water at the bottom of the chamber absorbs the newly formed acid, and is afterward boiled down to the proper degree of condensation.

This important manufacture may be illustrated in the class-room by the following experiment.

Exp. 100. Prepare a jar capable of holding two gallons, with a cork through which pass four bent tubes and one straight one. Put in two or three ounces of water. Prepare a flask for making nitric oxide, as in Exp. 60. Also a flask for sulphurous acid, as in Exp. 98. A third flask must be employed for generating steam. Connect these with the large jar and set all the processes in operation. Supply air by occasionally blowing in through the fourth bent tube, taking care to avoid inhaling any of the contents of the jar. The straight tube, an exit tube for the extra steam and gas, will prevent too great pressure.

Twenty or thirty minutes is sufficient time to exhibit the process, and to show the presence of sulphuric acid in the water in the bottom of the jar. The test given in the next experiment may be applied.

Exp. 101. To a glass of water containing a few drops of sulphuric acid, add a little clear solution of nitrate of baryta. A white precipitate of sulphate of baryta is formed.

Exp. 102. Fill a test-tube one-fourth full of water, and then add twice as much (by bulk) of strong sulphuric acid. The heat developed is too great for the hand to bear.

Exp. 103. Dip a pine stick into a little strong sulphuric acid. The stick is composed of hydrogen, oxygen, and carbon. The affinity of the acid for the two former is so great that they are abstracted at once, leaving the carbon. This is shown by the stick becoming quite black.

Combinations of sulphur with the metals, called sulphides or sulphurets, occur abundantly in nature. Their artificial preparation will be referred to in experiments with the metals. The protosulphuret of iron is so important to the experimenter that its preparation is described here.

Exp. 104. Mix two parts by weight of flowers of sulphur with three parts of iron-filings. Put the mixture in an earthen cup or crucible (or, to operate on a very small scale, in a pipe bowl), cover carefully with sand and clay, and heat to redness in the stove. The sulphur and iron will combine. By taking a little longer time, it may be prepared in the following manner.

Exp. 105. Mix the sulphur and iron-filings as in the last experiment, and add enough water to make a very thick paste. Set aside for an hour or two. The heat evolved shows that the process is going on satisfactorily.

Sulphuretted hydrogen, the only compound of hydrogen and sulphur, although a disagreeable-smelling gas, is in almost constant use by the analytical chemist, and is an interesting reagent to the experimenter. It is easily and rapidly made by the following process.

Exp. 106. Put half an ounce of protosulphuret of iron, made as in *Exp. 104* or *105*, into a bottle provided with a conduction-tube similar to that employed in *Exp. 40*. Pour on a couple of ounces of dilute sulphuric acid. The gas is evolved rapidly, and may be passed into water, as in case of chlorine, and the solution preserved for experiments upon the metals. Do not inhale the gas.

Exp. 107. Make a weak solution of acetate of lead, and by using it on a brush, write or draw a picture upon white paper. While it is still moist expose it to the gas as it is evolved from the sulphuretted hydrogen generator. The picture or inscription turns rapidly black.

If the picture has been allowed to dry before applying the gas, the result may be produced by pouring over it some of the solution prepared as in *Exp. 106*.

SEPTEMBER, 1869.

NEED OF UPPER SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES.

IN the June number of *The Nassau Literary Magazine*, the organ of the Senior class at Princeton, President M'Cosh expresses the opinion that the one educational want of the country at this present time is a set of schools between the common schools and the colleges. "Between these two, the highest and the lowest, there seems to be a 'great gulf fixed' in many parts of the country, indeed throughout the most of the States." Our American Education, he goes on to say, has admirable elementary instruction, and an abundance of colleges; but in many States it has no adequate means for enabling our clever boys to rise from the lower schools to the collegiate institutions. This lack of high schools is most severely felt in the Southern States; yet it prevails to a deplorable extent in the border States also, and in the southern tier of Middle and Western States. From the complaints that come up from these parts of the country, Dr. M'Cosh is sure that there are hundreds, and he believes that there are thousands, of young men of bright parts and high literary and scientific tastes and appetites, who are kept from rising to a higher culture by the single circumstance that they have not had an opportunity of receiving, in early life, such an education as would fit them for entering the colleges. It is not solely as feeders to the colleges, however, that he would have such higher schools established; though considered in no other light than this, he believes that their value cannot be over estimated. He pleads for them on broader grounds. By far the greater number of the pupils of such schools would go out directly to their varied professions in life with much more highly cultured minds than they could hope to possess under the existing system; and it is through the elevation of these that the higher education would accomplish the most beneficent results in raising the grade of general culture among us.

In the matter of elementary instruction, he admits that our State system is, as a whole, inferior to that of no other country ; but he cannot say as much for our supply of upper schools or academies. "In every town and centre of population in Germany there are such educational institutions, with four, six, or eight, or ten, or twelve professors, giving high instruction in all the branches of literature and science, to youth from ten to eighteen years of age. A few years ago there were in Prussia 259 such schools, including 145 *Gymnasias*, in which languages, ancient and modern, occupy a high place ; and 65 *Real Schulen*, in which science is the predominant element. Armed with an order from the Prussian Government, I inspected a number of these schools a few years ago, and I found them in a state of most admirable efficiency, and helping more than any other agency to elevate the Prussians in the scale of nations. I found similar schools springing up in Austria, and raising up a well-educated middle class in the midst of abounding superstition. When I was in Holland, in the autumn of 1867, I found a well-organized set of literary and scientific schools in the leading towns of that country. All these schools in Germany and Holland are supported by the State. In England there is a large body of old endowed schools giving high instruction in classics, but not otherwise doing much good ; but in these reforming times the funds are certain to be turned to good account. In Scotland the teacher of every parish school knows Latin, and is prepared to give instruction in that language ; and in all towns of any size there are Burgh schools, with masters teaching Latin, Greek, French, and mathematics."

Advantages like these are not enjoyed by American youth, except, perhaps, in two or three States. Massachusetts, for one, has "considerably upwards of one hundred high schools, not including those in the city of Boston." "Connecticut has been striving to match the Bay State in this respect, and will no doubt succeed, and the other New England States will follow,"—a long way off, we are sorry to believe ; there being less to be hoped for from "the other New England States," not excluding Connecticut, than from many of the younger and more wide-awake States of the West. "New York State," he continues, "has also been seeking to organize its academies and high schools, and has had considerable success. But when we come farther south, to the States which are the main feeders of Princeton College, we find that very little has been done for the promo-

tion of a higher education in schools." As a consequence of this lack of high schools, "the promising boys of these States are placed at a great disadvantage when compared with the same class of youths in Massachusetts, in Germany, or in Scotland." Admitting the too apparent fact, the question arises, How can the evil be mitigated or entirely removed, soonest and best? Dr. M'Cosh seems to think by the establishment of new schools of the required rank; and he expresses the determination "to press this subject on the attention of enlightened men till they are aroused to a sense of its importance."

In view of the difficulty of persuading the public to establish a new order of schools,—especially since in the places where such schools are most needed the people are least willing to sustain *any* schools,—would it not be better to have the work begun, so far as possible, by institutions already established? That it could be done very largely with existing means, we are fully persuaded, and by means that are now largely going to waste.

The country is full of colleges and universities, so called, scores of which, more or less amply endowed, are endeavoring with fifth-rate professors and illy-prepared students to do the work that is done at Harvard and Yale. Aiming too pretentiously, they are shams. Aiming lower, they might do well much good work that is urgently needed, and which would redound to their own honor, and the benefit of multitudes of students who are now spreading themselves over courses so broad and high that their resulting scholarship is transparently thin. Unprepared for high culture, it would be impossible for such students to receive, in the time allotted, a genuine college training from the hands even of first-rate professors; much less at the hands of such as these weak institutions can command. Yet these same institutions, with their present equipment, might easily give their students the less ambitious, but, under the circumstances, vastly more profitable secondary instruction which they are prepared to receive, and which would fit them either for immediate entrance upon the ordinary employments of business-life or for pursuing successfully a first-class college course.

A hundred years hence our multitude of colleges and universities may possibly be needed *as such*. By that time, too, we may have a sufficient number of thoroughly educated professors to man them. But just now they are not needed, and cannot be sustained as colleges of the first rank.

As third, fourth, and fifth-rate colleges, they are almost a nuisance. As first-rate schools of a lower grade, to which they could readily be converted, they would be needed, and might go far toward supplying "the one great educational want of the country." Whether they would be willing to forego great pretension for greater usefulness, is the only question.

KINDERGARTENS.

ANOTHER educational need of the country, and one that many consider more urgent even than the need of high schools, is a class of schools equivalent to the German Kindergartens. For the larger proportion of the pupils of the primary schools, the subjects there taught and the methods of instruction pursued, are grievously unsuitable. And there are besides, especially in the larger towns and cities, multitudes of children too young to be admitted to the public schools, yet old enough to receive and to be greatly in need of systematic physical, mental, and moral training. For such children, Froebel's system is peculiarly well adapted; and as fast as teachers and parents become acquainted with its merits, Kindergartens become a public necessity. We have no doubt that before many years they will be found in every community. One thing that has delayed and still delays their introduction, is the lack of properly qualified teachers. Teachers have had no means of qualifying themselves for the work short of an impossible sojourn in Germany. This difficulty, however, we are happy to learn, is likely soon to be remedied. In Boston, Mrs. and Miss Kriege, two thoroughly trained Kindergartners, have opened a genuine Kindergarten, with a training school for teachers; while in Springfield, Mass., Prof. Wiebé, a disciple of Froebel, has opened an Institute consisting of a Kindergarten, a primary class, and a training school for imparting information gratuitously to those who are desirous of becoming acquainted with the system. From him Froebel's method has already been acquired by several teachers; and, as a result, has been introduced into two of the schools connected with the State Institution at Monson, Mass. There is reason to believe that Kindergartens will also soon be made a part of the school systems of Boston, Mass., and Syracuse, N. Y.

CORRESPONDENCE.

WHERE WORMAN GOT HIS "ORIGINAL" EXERCISES.

MR. EDITOR: Some time ago you expressed to me the opinion that there was not, nor possibly could be, anything worse than the "points" of Worman's so-called German Grammar, which I had exposed. Allow me to say that you were grievously mistaken. There *is* something worse,—and nowhere else than in the very book of this "rising" personage. Only Worman can beat Worman.

When this gentleman was looking about for some "intrinsically valuable" work, that might render him for his projected *French Grammar*, the same service that he had extorted from Otto in *German*, he lighted upon two nice little books published in Germany, for German students of French, and written by a man who goes by the name of Ploetz.¹ He thought he might put them under contribution for his *German Grammar*, and make a good thing of them. The numerous exercises (*German*, for translation into *French*) made his mouth water; and as he had taken the *rules* of his *Grammar* from Otto (because, as he assures us, it would have been a simple injustice to the student to withhold them), he decided, doubtless, for the same reason to *borrow* Mr. Ploetz's *Exercises*. In adopting this course it apparently did not strike him (in his solicitude to do good to his prospective students) that the exercises of Ploetz were made for German students of French; and that the author had avowedly adapted their construction and wording to the French idiom, with more or less violence to the vernacular. Perhaps Mr. Worman thought he ought to mix the idioms a little, considering the pure German too hard; or may be he overlooked the Gallic garment of that German in his zeal to benefit American students; or—not to put too fine a point on it—he *did not know it was bad German*. However that may be, he adopted the exercises *en masse*, so that you will scarcely find in any of his exercises, colloquial or otherwise (Oh Gaspey!), one single sentence not transcribed from Ploetz. Occasionally he may have had a little misgiving at the queer style; but, unfortunately, he changed the construction where he ought to have left it untouched, and left it where it ought to have been changed. So, for example, he altered the German "Will you become merchant," which is equally good for both French and German, into the un-German form, "Will you become *a* merchant;" but left unchanged "All dogs that bark do not bite," which is excellent French, but rather startling German and English. Thus most of the blunders in the exercises criticised by me, may be easily accounted for: they are *Gallicised* German, purloined from friend Ploetz, and ignorantly offered as *model* German. But, you will ask, How is that possible? How can exercises calculated to drill the *German* student in the rules of *French* grammar, be made available for the *American* student learning *German* grammar? I answer to this with

¹ Elementarbuch der Französischen Sprache, von Dr. Carl Ploetz: Berlin, 1866.—Schulgrammatik der Französischen Sprache, von Dr. Carl Ploetz: Berlin, 1867.

Cicero: *Charta non erubescit*. The fact is undeniable. Open where you will in Ploetz's book, and if familiar with Worman's "original exercises," you will meet everywhere old acquaintances. Thus, for instance, Exercise XXX (p. 254, in Worman's book) contains twelve sentences, occupying seventeen lines. *Nine* of these sentences, filling fifteen lines, I find *literally* in Ploetz (pp. 129, 136, 137, 139, 145, 151, 155, 161, 168). Only three short sentences, occupying no more than two lines, I failed to find; and these, I doubt not, may be detected somewhere in Ploetz. Worman appears to have seized upon Ploetz's exercises as he would on a pack of cards, and distributed them (as I said in my first article) at random over his book. He likewise took the trouble to *translate* his *English* exercises bodily from Ploetz's *German* ones; but, strange to say, he did not touch, so far as I can discover, a single one of Ploetz's *French* exercises. Perhaps he found the translation of *these* too troublesome; or may be he saved them for future use.

The conclusions which must be drawn from these facts are so evident that I need not mention them. Since Mr. Worman, in his "reply," accepts as true my erroneous opinion concerning the originality of his exercises, he will understand without difficulty that he has placed himself in no enviable position. This is certainly not relieved by the fact that he acknowledged, in three special remarks, his indebtedness to Woodbury for *three* sentences, while he was unscrupulously plundering Ploetz of as many thousand, without even so much as mentioning his name in general terms in the preface. The light which this whole transaction throws upon the method which Mr. Worman followed in manufacturing his book, and upon the nature of his abilities, is so rich, that you, MR. EDITOR, will at once acknowledge the mistake alluded to in the beginning of this letter, and understand, without trouble, why this clever personage is conducting his correspondence in *English* even with Germans.

I cannot refrain from imparting here the name of the gentleman who involuntarily helped me to this interesting discovery. It was no other than Mr. Worman himself; who, in his "reply," used the name of Ploetz to justify the horrible German construction of one of his "classical" reading pieces. Being anxious to know how in the world any German author could have written in so barbarous a style, I took the trouble to look up Ploetz's (French) Grammar. Here I found among innumerable well-known "original" sentences of Worman, the very piece I had criticised; not given, however, as model German, but as German intentionally twisted into the *French idiom*, to facilitate its translation into French! Such is the stuff that Mr. Worman places before American students as classical German. To betray the name of the *author* of his purloined exercises was, under the circumstances,—to say the least,—rather incautious.

I am much obliged to you for sending me Messrs. Barnes's second circular. Of course you will not expect any reply from me;—nor, I presume, will my "personal friend," Dr. von Holst, whom I had not the honor of knowing, even by name, when—according to Messrs. Barnes's account—he "succeeded in persuading *his* friends of the *Nation* to join in the conspiracy against the book."

Yours, etc., G. FISCHER.

EDUCATIONAL INTELLIGENCE.

NEW YORK.—The annual report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction for 1868, a document marked by rare good sense and freedom from cant, sets forth, so far as general statistics can, the results of the first year's operation of our reformed school system. These results, we are glad to see, are such as were anticipated by the friends of the change which made the schools of the State practically, what they had before been only in name—that is, *common* and *free*. In the words of the report, "The cause of public instruction, during the last fiscal year, has wrought results unequalled in all the past; and which, if they correctly denote a corresponding growth in the popular estimate of the value and advantages of our public schools, mark a new and more auspicious era in the development of the educational system of the State." The improvements are manifested chiefly in lengthened terms of school, in larger and more uniform attendance, and in more liberal expenditures for school buildings and appliances. And that all these are really due to the change in the system, is evident from the fact that they obtain chiefly in the rural districts, where the impediment of rate-bills had been most severely felt. For example, in the cities, where are found nearly half the school children of the State, but where the schools were, for the most part, already free, the increase in the average daily attendance was only 1,254; while in the rural districts the increase was 24,657. That is to say, the abolition of rate-bills immediately opened the school doors to at least 20,000 children who otherwise would have been shut out. And still more: the schools were maintained on an average over two weeks longer than ever before.

The number of persons in the State, over five and under twenty-one years of age, is given as 1,464,669; of whom 970,842 are reported as having attended public school during some part of the year. These numbers, however, must be taken with considerable allowance. In the larger cities the school population is *estimated*; and as the apportionment of school money is made on the number of children of school age in each district, the temptation is to over, rather than under estimate. The reported school enrolment is also likely to be largely in excess of the truth, inasmuch as it includes transfers and repeaters. The reported average daily attendance, 445,868, is more likely to come near the truth. This, as has already been said, is considerably larger than ever before, though considerably short of what it should be. The aggregate school attendance of the State during the year was 83,397,250 days, which is equivalent to about one quarter's schooling for the entire actual school population. The schools were kept open an average period of 42 weeks 1 day in the cities, and 32 weeks 4 days in the country. The number of common-school teachers employed was 27,783, of whom 16,596 are reported as having been "employed at the same time for twenty-eight weeks or more." Of these teachers, 384 were licensed by Normal schools, 1,000 by the Supt. of Pub. Instruction, and 26,399 by local officers. The average annual salary paid to city teachers was \$641.47; to teachers of country and village schools, \$240.75; the total expenditure for teachers' wages being \$5,597,506.94, an increase for the year of \$771,035. The

expenditures for school-buildings, sites, repairs, etc., reached the sum of \$2,184,065, a large excess over that of any preceding year. The reported value of school-houses and sites was \$16,459,485, the average value of school-houses, etc., in the cities, being \$28,656; and in the rural districts \$600. The entire expense of maintaining the common-schools during the year was \$9,040,942, an advance of \$1,357,740 on the corresponding total for 1867. In addition to the pupils enrolled in the common-schools, 119,774 are reported as having attended private schools, 32,735 academies, and 2,499 the colleges of the State; making the entire school-going population of New York,—or rather, the whole number of persons reported as having received scholastic instruction during some part of the year,—1,125,850. The Superintendent speaks favorably of Union Schools, but opposes special legislation in regard to them. "With all deference," he says, "to the accommodating disposition of the Legislature in facilitating the organization of these schools, in my judgment the practice of special legislation, on school matters provided for by general laws, should be discontinued." The mismanagement of the district libraries is historically considered, but no means are suggested for preventing their threatened extinction. Sixty-one teachers' institutes, in fifty-six counties, were held during the year. The attendance of teachers was larger than ever before, amounting to more than 82 per cent. of the whole number of teachers employed in the district schools of the State, and more than 84 per cent. of all in the counties where institutes were held. Twenty-six Indian schools, having an average daily attendance of 516, were taught for an average period of 32 weeks. There appears to be growing among the Indians a disposition to improve the school advantages afforded them by the State. The Superintendent devotes considerable space to Normal schools and to Normal-school legislation. Four of the eight Normal schools established by the State were in full operation when the report was made, and preparations for opening the others were rapidly approaching completion. The school at Albany had 375 students,—a larger number than at any former time. In this and in other respects, the Superintendent believes that "this school maintains the high standard of excellence, which has advanced it from the condition of an experiment, to become the prototype of seven others." The Oswego school "fully maintains the excellent reputation it has so rapidly acquired and so deservedly enjoys." The number in attendance was 385. At Brockport, "a good beginning has been made; and there is reason to believe that in due time this school may rival in excellence those now more fully developed." Of the Fredonia school, the Superintendent remarks: "The management of this school renders it a fitter subject for reformation than for commendation;" but he enters into no particulars, perhaps because the particulars are too notorious and disgraceful to be repeated. It is a shame that a school so generously provided for materially, should have its usefulness destroyed by the unseemly selfishness of a set of sectarians who aspire to control it for denominational ends. As a State institution, the school ought to be out of the reach of church interference. The number of pupils in the Normal departments of these schools was 1,009; in all their departments, 2,293. In the teachers' classes in academies there were 1,489, all of whom had signed a declaration of their intention to make teaching their occupation. The Superintendent recommends a thorough revision of the Normal School Acts

by the Legislature;—the statutes relating to the organization, management, and support of these schools being altogether too general in their provisions, and too indefinite or deficient in many essential particulars. In the matter of supervision, the Superintendent's remarks are straightforward and decidedly sensible. If he can put a stop to what he so finely describes—the "trafficking, jobbing, speculating circumsppection, slyly seeking a public position to subserve commercial enterprises," that so often passes for school supervision—he will do immense service to the State. Of some of the sub-reports from city superintendents we shall take occasion to speak in another issue.

THE twenty-fifth annual meeting of the NEW YORK TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION was held at Ithaca, July 27th, 28th, and 29th. The exercises of the opening session, the afternoon of the first day, consisted of an address of welcome by Rev. Dr. Strong, on behalf of the citizens of the place; a similar address by Hon. Ezra Cornell, in response to whose invitation the Association was convened at Ithaca; and President Reed's inaugural. Speaking of the plan and working of Cornell University, especially in regard to appointments to State scholarship, Mr. Cornell announced that no distinction of sex is made in the organic law of the University, and that any ladies, duly qualified, who should present themselves for admission, would be received: an announcement that was received with much applause. In the evening, T. W. Valentine, of Brooklyn, read a paper on "Duty and Interest," in which he denounced, as did Prest. Reed in his inaugural, the action of our late Legislature in granting appropriations to sectarian schools. J. W. Barker, of Buffalo, next read a paper on Teachers' Institutes, in which he reviewed the rise and progress of teachers' meetings, considered the legitimate work of these professional schools for the great body of teachers unreached by Normal schools, and appealed to teachers to exercise greater care and vigilance in conducting them. The next morning, resolutions were adopted deploring the death of Hon. Charles R. Coburn, late School Supt. of Pennsylvania, and paying a high tribute to his memory "as a sincere friend, an intelligent and hard-working practical educator, a thoroughly honest man, and an earnest and consistent Christian." A Report was then read by D. J. Pratt, of Albany, "On the Study of History in Common Schools." This was followed by D. H. Cruttenden's inevitable discourse "On Language," which Mr. Cruttenden, with sublime persistence, has inflicted on about every convention of teachers ever held in the State,—with occasional excursions into adjacent States. Then Dr. Lambert trotted out *his* hobby, as familiar to convention-going teachers as Dan Rice's ponies are to circus-going boys. Year after year, with charming *naïveté*, he assures assembled teachers that "ten years ago" he was laughed at for expressing "new ideas"—in regard to the advantages of weekly bathing, and so forth—happily unconscious that he is laughed at all the time. His personal equation in the matter of ridicule, indeed, appears to be just ten years. Is it possible that, with so much devotion to "brain-producing food," his brain-action is always a decade behind? We should like to know how it fared with his "ancestors" in this respect: and—to use his pet phrases—what bearing such "surface indications" of constitutional peculiarity are likely to have on his "probable longevity."

In the afternoon, Supt. Bulkley, on behalf of the committee of ex-

presidents, reported in favor of celebrating, next year, at Syracuse (where, twenty-five years ago, the Association was organized), the first quarter-centennial of the Association: which report was adopted. B. Waterhouse Hawkins, the well-known artist-naturalist, then delivered, with his unrivalled crayon illustrations, an address "On the Unity of Design in the work of Creation." No better person could have been chosen to show the teachers of the State the wonderful effect of happy graphic illustration in conveying instruction. It is to be hoped that the teachers will imitate, to the best of their ability, the lecturer's most efficient use of the blackboard, and that the resolution adopted the following day, recommending Teachers' Associations to avail themselves of Mr. Hawkins's instruction, on all possible occasions, will be generally acted on. J. J. Edwards, M. D., of the city, next read a paper on the origin and relations to each other of the types and characters used in writing and printing. In the evening the Association was favored with Professor Sprague's lecture on Milton as an Educator, the most eloquent and scholarly address delivered before the Convention.

Thursday morning, the third and last day, committee-reports were read "On Improved Methods in Education," by S. G. Williams, of Ithaca; "On Women as School Officers," by James Johonnot; and "On the Quarter-Centennial Anniversary," by J. W. Bulkley; and addresses by Prof. Barlow, of Amherst College, "On The Passions and Emotions in Reading;" by Prof. Allen, "On Chartography;" and by Calvin Townsend, Esq., "On Civil Government." In the afternoon, the following officers were elected for the next year: *President*, S. D. Barr, of Rochester;—*Vice-Presidents*, Mrs. A. T. Randall, Oswego; S. G. Love, Jamestown; M. McVicar, Potsdam; A. G. Merwin, Brooklyn;—*Secretaries*, H. R. Sanford, Penn Yan; J. G. Fox, Brooklyn;—*Cor. Sec.*, G. L. Farnham, Binghamton;—*Treasurer*, D. J. Pratt, Albany. Delegates were appointed to attend a Teachers' Association at Toronto; and a committee, to revise the Constitution and By-Laws of the Association, to report at the next annual meeting, which is to be held at Syracuse, the last Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday of July, 1870. Mr. T. L. Griswold, of Forrestville, read a paper on Methods in Education, which was followed by a resolution expressing the Association's disapproval of the action of the last Legislature in granting funds to sectarian schools, and considerable discussion thereon. The evening session was devoted chiefly to readings, singing, thanksgiving resolutions, mutual admiration, and other social exercises. Altogether the meeting was quite a satisfactory one. The attendance was large, the entertainment of the teachers by the town's-people was liberal, and everything passed off with very little jarring.

A meeting of the STATE ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS AND COMMISSIONERS was held at Ithaca in connection with the foregoing. Lack of space prevents our giving a report of its proceedings in this issue. For the same reason we are obliged to hold over, with much other matter, our reports of the proceedings of the AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION, at Poughkeepsie; the UNIVERSITY CONVOCATION, at Albany; the AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION, at Portsmouth, N. H., and other meetings of interest. The National Conventions, at Trenton, are in session as we go to press. We hope to give a full report of their proceedings next month.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

DR. HAVEN'S *Rhetoric*¹ is externally one of the most attractive text-books we have lately seen. The reader takes it up with the expectation of finding that the author has, of course, done his part of the work as well as the publishers have theirs. But he forthwith begins to be surprised at certain things he finds. His surprise soon passes into a conviction that the Doctor has written the work in a hurry; and before he gets through, he is forced into the belief that the book is substantially a failure.

We cheerfully admit that the book contains many good points; but its excellencies are not sufficiently numerous or weighty to save it. As a text-book professedly teaching "the art of expressing thought and feeling by language *in the best possible manner*," it ought not, by example any more than by precept, to falsify its character. And yet it abounds with examples of slovenly composition, and teaches the unwary some most execrable modes of expressing thought. We give a few specimens:—

(1.) Grammatical errors. "New terms must be introduced *so* often as any new object or law is discovered;" p. 63. "LET is no longer needed in the sense of HINDER, *as* [for "*in which*"] it was once employed;" p. 64. "No language *more* abounds in ambiguities [for "*abounds with ambiguities more*"] than the English. Indeed, it may be doubted whether *any* ambiguity can be found in *any* language that may not be translated into English. Certainly *it* might be imitated and paralleled in our language. For this reason great *care* should be taken to avoid *it*, but even after the utmost *care* *it* ["any ambiguity"] will sometimes occur;" p. 68. "I say that *you*, O *thou* son of Eacus!" etc.; p. 69. "That beautiful poem of Bryant, *Thanatopsis*, should be read aloud," etc.; p. 219. (2.) Inelegancies. "Let a young writer remember that the profuse use of hackneyed foreign terms, usually found in a list, etc., etc., is not so much an indication of scholarship as *either* of carelessness or pedantry;" p. 60. "Circumstances arise, which demand *either* an old term used in a new signification or a new term;" p. 52. "It is often assumed that *Americans* use many provincialisms, which have been called '*Americanisms*,' though, in fact, *no people use so few*. (!!) Many of the inaccuracies that have been styled *Americanisms* have been imported, but have *here* obtained larger currency than at home, and are *here* oftener seen in print. There *are* of course some peculiar expressions, and *always* must be, of native origin;" p. 67. The following presents a case of a word too many or a word too few; we cannot say which. "Some of the most elegant writers in the language err in this respect, *arising* from the fact, undoubtedly, that their productions were intended to be read;" p. 224. (3.) Tautology is thus encouraged: "It is a profitable exercise to *scrutinize* words *closely*;" p. 51. "We may say '*a slow velocity*,'" p. 50. "It sometimes arises from a want of thought, leading the author to *repeat over and over again* the little modicum of sense," etc.; p. 56. "Antithesis is the *collocation* of two objects *together*, that differ distinctly,"

¹ *Rhetoric: A Text-Book, designed for use in Schools and Colleges, and for Study.* By Rev. E. O. Haven, D.D., LL.D. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1860. 12mo, pp. 381.

etc. ; p. 113. Observe, too, the beauty of saying the collocation of "two objects." This reminds us of other definitions of the Doctor's. He has a wonderful faculty of teaching others how to do this part of composition-writing. Examples :—" Tropes are single words, used figuratively or not, in their literal meaning ;" p. 78. It may be said, that this is only a printer's error. Still, it shows great carelessness. It would have been sufficient if, after having explained the meaning of figurative language, he had simply said, " Tropes are single words used figuratively." Sometimes it is not best to give a definition, but to talk about a thing, and then intimate what you are talking about. The following are illustrations of this : "*Provincialisms.*—Provincialisms *should be avoided*, or sparingly and discriminately employed. Some words are used in confined localities, and are *unknown* elsewhere. If they are substituted for *other well-known* (!) words in the language, they *should be discarded*;" p. 66. "*Ambiguous Expressions.*—Ambiguous words *should be avoided*. Words capable of having two or more meanings, or so employed as to admit of diverse interpretations, *should never be used*," etc. ; p. 68. On p. 95, the author says, "An Allusion is an *implied comparison*;" and on p. 102, "A Metaphor is an *implied comparison*." That is, an allusion is a metaphor, and a metaphor is an allusion! The only seeming difference is, that an allusion is more important than a metaphor,—the word *comparison*, in the definition of the former, being made to commence with a capital C.

To teach pupils how to write intelligently and truthfully, he says, p. 49, "Words *having precisely the same signification* are called synonymous words;" and on p. 123, "It is contrary to the genius of the English language to have two words *meaning precisely the same thing*." Under the subject of "Elocution," p. 351, he has a section headed, "How to make a production *impressive*," that is, one would suppose, *in its delivery*. But, strange to say, there is not a word in all the fourteen lines of this section that has reference to delivery. All that is offered there relates to the work of printing, publishing, and binding books.

We close with offering a few miscellaneous tid-bits. On p. 306, our witty friend, John G. Saxe, is called "Alfred Saxe." On p. 77, the author says, "The *head* [instead of "heading"] of this chapter is 'Tropes.'" This, he tells us, is "a figurative meaning" of the word. No doubt; and he might have added, "Rare and unauthorized." On p. 137, he has a few words about a figure which he calls "Liptotes." On p. 199, we read, "A simple sentence has *but one* subject, and one finite verb. Instances: 'Man is mortal.' 'To an American visiting Europe, the long *voyage he has to make* is an excellent preparative.'" These are the only "instances" he gives; one of which is not an instance, since it does not conform to his description.

From these samples the reader may judge somewhat of the slipshod, slovenly manner in which the author has executed his part of the work. We lay the book down, regretting that it adds nothing worth commending to a class of text-books that call loudly for improvement.

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